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Teacher as Researcher: Roles and Expectations
An Annotated Bibliography

By Joe Belanger

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ABSTRACT

The teacher-researcher has assumed many roles ranging from research assistant through collaborator to research director. The benefits of teacher research include the political (it is a vehicle for the empowerment of teachers), the practical (teachers are in the best position to verify which methods work best), and professional growth (they are reflective practitioners in control of their own learning). The annotated bibliography which follows also addresses such issues as research expertise, credibility, conflicts, and sharing findings, and lists books presenting detailed advice for teachers wishing to learn to carry out systematic research.

Teacher as Researcher: Roles and Expectations

An Annotated Bibliography

By Joe Belanger

University of British Columbia

The concept of "teacher as researcher" grew out of practical teacher research in the 1920's and 1930's, (Chall, 1986), was modified by the action research movement of the late 1940's and 1950's (Corey, 1949, 1953; Lewin, 1946), and has generated a moderate but consistent interest in educational publications for the past forty years. The teacher empowerment movement combined with the growing respectability in education of qualitative research methods brought a surge of interest in teacher research in the mid-1980's. More recently, a number of

national and international conferences have used the theme teacher as researcher as a focus (e.g., the 1991 National Association of Teachers of English conference in Barbados) and specialist councils have produced teacher-researcher materials for members (e.g., in 1991 the New Zealand Association for the Teaching of English commissioned a brochure on "How to Research" aimed at teachers).

The scope of the research projects conducted by teacher-researchers ranges from the longitudinal national projects undertaken by Stenhouse (1978) in the United Kingdom and the graduate research community established by Chorny (1988) at the University of Calgary to short-term observations by teachers in their own classrooms (Ray in Goswami and Stillman, 1987; Allen and Albert, 1987). A very large majority of the published teacher-researcher projects have been collaborative efforts of classroom teachers and university professors.

The first five works reviewed in this paper represent the variety of roles found in the literature for the teacher researcher: a primary researcher who conceives, designs, carries out, and reports research; an equal partner with those who possess different skills and backgrounds in research; a junior partner who lacks the research skills to carry out formal research without guidance; an activist who controls the key elements of his or her profession; a teacher/graduate student who is a member of a research community which focusses on a central theme, each researcher probing a particular question. A number of other works address such issues as the credibility of teacher researchers among school administrators, communicating research findings and developing university courses in teacher research. In addition, a number of self-help books, largely in English and the language arts, present plans for carrying out systematic research.

The potential benefits claimed for teacher research are also diverse: an enriched professionalism; increased confidence

in instructional decision making; a defense against burn-out; a new appreciation for theory; a potential avenue for informing theory (Patterson and Stansell, 1987); the demystifying of research; empowerment of teachers (Strickland, 1988); and a necessary condition for professional development (Nixon, 1987). In addition, it encourages effective change; revitalizes teachers; promotes ownership of effective practices; verifies what methods work; widens the range of teachers' professional skills; enables teachers to become change agents (Reading/Language in Secondary Schools Subcommittee of IRA, 1989).

In general, those who question the value of teacher research view research from the traditional, positivistic paradigm and question whether teachers have the resources or expertise either to formulate conceptually sound, theory-based research questions or to carry out studies and interpret findings in a scientifically rigorous way. According to this view, an in-depth understanding of research methods and a

mastery of the discipline involved are required to conduct worthwhile research. In this case, the teacher is at best a junior partner who follows the instructions of the experts.

A contrasting and more widely published (if not more widely held) view is that because teachers work directly with the day-to-day problems in education, they are in the best position to formulate research questions, to investigate problems, and to reflect on results. As might be expected, those holding this view generally reject the scientific paradigm of research and opt for the naturalistic, participant-observation methods of anthropological research. Though often criticized as atheoretical, this research also holds the potential for informing theory, according to Patterson and Stansell (1987).

I. Five Competing Views and Roles of the Teacher-Researcher

a. The Extended Professional

Dorothy S.(1988)."The Teacher as Researcher: Toward the Extended Professional." [followed by Frederick R. Burton "Reflections of Strickland's 'Toward the Extended Professional,'" pp. 765-68; followed by Strickland's "Reflections on Burton's Reflections," pp. 769-70.]Language Arts, 65(8): 754-70.

Strickland notes that her own view of teachers as researchers over the past twenty years has changed from viewing teachers as junior, limited collaborators to full, active partners of the research team. Today she frequently encounters teachers who are conducting research on their own, "encouraged by a need to construct their own knowledge about things which are important to them."

Strickland addresses six questions central to the topic:

1. What does it mean to be a teacher researcher?

Teacher research, she notes, is characterized by a design which evolves with the project. Unlike traditional researchers whose main purpose is to justify conclusions which extend beyond the

populations and situations studied, teachers undertake research in order to get a better understanding of events in their particular educational environments: teachers research to do a better job. The current trend, according to Strickland, is for teachers to collaborate with more traditional, university researchers to take advantage of the different perspectives and expertise each brings to the situation.

2. What led to the new interest in teacher as researcher? Strickland sees four related factors which have led to interest in teachers as researchers. First, because teaching is "context specific" and "attmepts to define generic features of effective classrooms actually tell us very little," there has been an increased desire to conduct research in naturalistic settings. Secondly, the interest in "process" (writing process, reading process) lends itself to classroom observations. Third, there has been increased use of naturalistic research methods which are characterized by prolonged, systematic observations and extensive record keeping. And finally, cross disciplinary studies in

universities are giving collaboration respectability.

3. How is the teacher-researcher movement viewed in the field? Various actions have been taken to stimulate the teacher researcher movement including the establishment of grants to teacher-researchers by the National Council of Teachers of English (U.S.) Research Foundation. While some question whether teachers have the time, expertise, and instutional support to engage in research of any type, others offer examples of successful, self-directed, teacher organized, and teacher-led research projects. Current theory tends to favor a collaborative approach and Strickland notes that teachers work within certain constraints when they work entirely alone. However she notes that "The need to question, hypothesize, text, and share ideas with others is an important part of any research effort. Who the others are will vary, however.

4. How do teacher researchers conduct classroom inquiry? Most often teachers use a variety of case-study methods. Strickland cites Judith Green's seven-step plan: 1.

identify the issue, interest, or concern, 2. seek knowledge, 3. plan an action, 4. implement an action, 5. observe the action, 6, reflect on the observations, and 7, revise the plan.

5. What conditions support teachers as researchers? Strickland offers Ross's six conditions for successful classroom researcher: 1. teachers are helped to develop realistic and broad definitions of classroom research, 2. time and money are provided as incentives for conducting research, 3. participation in research projects is encouraged, but kept voluntary, 4. teachers are given instruction in how to conduct research, 5. teachers have access to appropriate resource personnel on a continuing basis, and 6. mechanisms for sharing research ideas and findings are in place. (However, as Myers notes, the reward system for teachers differs from that of professors: "K-12 classroom teachers are not promoted, paid, or commended for doing research.")

6. What is the value of teacher research? Strickland sees "no more promising trend than the teacher-as-researcher movement" in the promotion of excellence in teaching.

> Teacher researchers tend to give a great deal of attention to why they think the way they do. They are more apt to know what others believe about a subject and to relate that knowledge to their own thinking.

The value of teacher research lies in teacher empowerment, the demystifying of research and the professionalization of teaching, according to Strickland.

Responding to Strickland's article, Frederick R. Burton disagrees that the "action researchers" of the 40's and 50's, with their emphasis on the scientific method, were necessarily a good influence on the teacher-as-researcher movement. The two problems he sees are that scientists rarely work this way (advances are made in science when researchers break the conventional rules, according to Burton), and that the value of teachers as theorizers is often overlooked. Noting that when reading fiction we "construct generalizations about ourselves and the larger human family," Burton suggests that teacher research is

> 'researching' experience. It is the telling of pedagogical

stories. Others read these stories and psychologically make generalizations. In this way, teacher-researcher enquiry does go beyond a specific classroom.

He claims that teacher research is viewed in the field "with some paternalism" because teachers "lack the methodological key to do 'proper' research." He says that research is a way to know as well as a matter of whose knowledge is valued. Therefore the debate of the value of teachers as researchers should center around epistomological and political issues rather than methodological ones. He finds it ironic that many articles based on collaborative research are rarely collaboratively written with teachers.

In response, Strickland notes that the telling of pedagogical stories has frequently been demeaned by those who would characterize the results of qualitative research as "mere storytelling." She also notes that there is a danger that teacher researchers themselves will not value what they do unless it emulates the work of traditional researchers. Strickland is concerned that "the threat of paternalism: will

drive a wedge between teacher researchers and university researchers to the extent that teachers will regard only their independent research efforts as being 'pure' and worthy of being called teacher research."

b. Strengths and Limitations

Applebee, Arthur N.(1987)."Musings . . . Teachers and the Process of Research."Research in the Teaching of English,21: 5-7.

In this oft-cited (and criticized) editorial, Applebee notes some strengths and limitations of teachers as researchers. The teacher-researcher relationship, according to Applebee, is at its best a symbiotic one which draws upon the differing expertise of teachers and researchers, where each group is informed by the strengths of the other. Applebee notes three forces which have led to increasing involvement of teachers as researchers: interest in ethnographic research

methods which brings teachers and researchers into prolonged, co-operative association; increasing respect for the professionalism of teachers; and the emphasis upon instructional research as a means of solving the problems of practice.

Applebee notes that "we have sometimes lost sight of the fact that teachers and researchers bring different perspectives and different expertise to the problems addressed in research--and it is this difference that makes collaboration potentially so productive. Teachers and researchers generally have different training and experience and as a result they see educational issues from different perspectives. Teacher-researcher collaborations, he feels, should tap teachers' expertise as reflective practitioners who can ask questions that help to define new problems to study and provide evidence of what works and what does not. On the other hand, expecting teachers to do their own research--even supported by the often-limited exposure to the various research methodologies offered by research courses--"puts the focus instead on the

methodolotical and disciplinary skills they don't have--and don't need to have in order to be excellent teachers." He notes that even at major research universities, teaching and research are generally separate: "the agendas of the classroom are too different, and the daily dameands too pressing, to expect most of us to be both teacher and researcher at the same time."

c. Alternative Strategies

Patterson, Leslie, and Stansell, John C. (1987). "Teachers and Researchers: A New Mutualism." Language Arts, 64(7): 717-21.

Patterson and Stansell contend that a major unrecognized benefit of teacher research is its potential for informing theory but feel that this will not become an issue until "teacher research moves beyond its present status as an intriguing novelty." They take Applebee ("Musings," 1987) to task for holding a too narrow view of the teacher's role.

Rejecting Applebee's "positivistic" stance, they claim that an organismic model is more appropriate: research is seen as a transaction between the researcher and the subject. It assumes that education is a complex network of transactions and that both the researcher and the research are influenced in the process.

The "new" teacher-researcher is neither "a researcher in the traditional sense nor a stereotypical expert-practitioner," they claim. Instead, the teacher-researcher is "a new breed, combining theoretical grounding, methodological training, and classroom experience in a nontraditional way, in order to make theory-based instructional choices and in order to observe, document, and interpret the responses of students within each classroom context." This model accommodates both university researchers and classroom teachers according to Patterson and Stansell.

d. Collaboration and Professional Growth

Nixon, Jon. (1987). "The Teacher as Researcher: Contradictions and Continuities." The Peabody Journal of Education, 64(2): 20-32.

Nixon discusses two aspects of the concept teacher as researcher: the political notion of what it can do to elevate the profession and practical advice on how to conduct research (essentially case studies) and report the findings.

One major advantage of the teacher-as-researcher movement is that it provides "a social setting where people can work together, dream together of a better community, and try to translate their dreams into the language of action and evaluation."

Classifying teacher research as fundamentally "action research," Nixon says that one of the chief advantages is that it can "challenge the currently widespread assumption that there is a package of ready-made solutions to the problems of education." He also finds it potentially subversive in that it can restore the balance of power between theorists and

practitioners, shifting the advantage to the latter.

Nixon does not exclude traditional researchers from his paradigm, but teachers retain primary control, even to the point of contracting out pieces of the research to those with appropriate expertise.

Rejecting the representative samples of the 'psycho-statistical paradigm' of educational research, Nixon feels the case-study approach is the most appropriate for teachers. He cautions that the traditional view of research where "a systematic sequence of activities whereby one step is entirely polished before the next step is started" is inappropriate (and, in fact, not the way of traditional research). Instead, he opts for a developmental process which begins as "a feeling of dissatisfaction" or a "felt need" and culminates in retrospective reflection. The question probably does not start as an air-tight hypothesis, but it evolves with the research. The proof of the findings lies in "the practical working out of the insights to be derived from them," not in their relation to a theoretical body of knowledge.

Nixon addresses three issues: accountability, context, and validity. The twin problems of role conflicts arising from the expectations of colleagues and the worry that colleagues may have about being exposed (as incompetent, unthinking, or unaware) by the teacher-researcher can be addressed by being open about research projects and by giving all participants control over which data are given and released. The problem of validity is examined through the distinction between "formal scientific generalizations" and "naturalistic generalizations," the latter arrived at by "recognizing the similarities of objects and issues in and out of context and by sensing the natural covariations and happenings."

Nixon predicts that the concept of teacher as researcher will expand considerably: "the notion of the lone 'teacher-as-researcher' engaged in isolated, though significant, acts of classroom enquiry will give way to the idea of collaborative in-school and cross-institutional groups involved in researching the organizational, as well as pedagogical, aspects of schooling." Indeed, he sees teacher

research as a condition for professional growth: teachers "need to define for themselves a role which is instrumental in the formulation of priorities and the articulation of values. The adoption by teachers of a research stance to their work is a necessary condition for the development of such a role."

e. Graduate Student Research Communities

Chorny, Merron. (1988). Teacher as Researcher, Calgary, Alberta: University of Calgary Language in the Classroom Project.

A collection of articles on a group of research projects which explore a set of common themes in a sustained and rigorous manner, Teacher as Researcher can be read on two levels: first, it provides a good deal of research evidence on the place of talk, reading, and writing in the classroom. Of equal importance, however, it is a model of the kind of professional growth which arises when experienced teachers join

a research group and explore questions central to teaching and learning. In this case, the catalyst was graduate studies at the University of Calgary.

Described by Prof. Ian Pringle in the book's "Afterword" as "undoubtedly the most important research into the teaching of English and the language arts that Canada has produced to date," Teacher as Researcher is a collection of sixteen articles based on graduate studies conducted at the University of Calgary over a period of ten years. An intermediate step in the process from thesis to anthology was the Teacher as Learner/Teacher as Researcher Conference at the University of Calgary in 1983.

For the teacher-researcher movement, three lessons are evident in Teacher as Researcher: the importance of peer discussion at all stages of the research projects, the need for a firm theoretical grounding in the questions addressed, and the importance of a vehicle for dissemination

which goes beyond the individual thesis or journal article and synthesizes the work.

A theme which runs through Teacher as Researcher is the importance of collaboration among the researchers, collaboration which took many forms. It is clear that these researchers have read many of the same works and have explored and refined their research questions in seminars and cafes. What's more important, they have read each other's work and been enriched by it, as is evident in the themes interwoven throughout the sixteen chapters and the citations made by the researchers.

II. Methods and Characteristics

Foster, Lois and Nixon, Mary (1978). "Teacher as Researcher: the Problem Reconsidered." Canadian Journal of Education, 3(1): 75-88.

Taking issue with the view that teachers cannot become researchers other than in a very limited sense, Foster and Nixon contend that the role of a teacher is far too complex not to include a research component. They note the lack of research training in both pre- and in-service and that little encouragement is given to including research in the teacher's role set.

Foster and Nixon list three sets of interrelated conditions required for effective research (adequate resources, appropriate structures, and a sympathetic political, social, and educational climate) and outline five contributions that the "sociology of knowledge" can make to teacher research. They cite Gorbutt's claim that

> The basic aim would be to produce the self-critical researching teacher who would constantly monitor the effectiveness of his own and colleagues' activities and modify his behaviour accordingly. Thus teaching itself would become a self-critical research act.

As pre-service education included more insturction in research methodology, university researchers would become consultants to teacher researchers. To promote reliability of findings, they suggest the technique of triangulation: teachers, students, and outside observers prepare independent accounts and meet to discuss and interpret them.

Brown, H. Douglas. (1977). "The English Teacher as Researcher." English Language Teaching Journal, 31(4): 274-79.

Defining research as a "set of conventions for asking questions, looking for answers to those questions, and supporting those answers; it is a process of gathering evidence to support certain assumptions," Brown offers some basic rules for ESL teachers who wish to conduct their own research.

III. Practical Issues: Collaborating, Observing, Reporting

Chall, Jeanne S. (1986). "The Teacher as Scholar." The Reading

Teacher, 39: 793-97.

Chall presents a brief historical overview of attitudes toward teachers as researchers and offers teachers advice on questions to ask themselves before undertaking research, questions which teacher research might address, and appropriate methods of data analysis.

She notes that in the 1920's and 1930's teachers and administrators carried out a good deal of research but that in the 1940's and 1950's there was a decline in teacher research, particularly in collaborative research. The greater emphasis on theory-based research of the 1960's and 1970's and "big research" projects--heavily funded and technical--moved research even closer to universities and research centers. However, she feels that recent emphasis on greater simplicity of research methodology is rekindling interest in teachers as scholars and researchers.

Chall begins with three central questions: Why do you want to do individual research? Are you prepared to undertake

systematic observation and analysis? and Do you have the time to carry it through? She notes that the writing folders kept by many teachers are open to systematic analysis in a number of different ways: comparison of September and May papers on such features as utterance length, use of uncommon words; the relationship between reading and writing growth; the influence of spelling and grammar. Teachers could also compare their assessments of students' achievement with evidence from standardized tests.

Calling it the oldest form of scholarship, Chall suggests that synthesis of published research provides an excellent opportunity for the teacher-researcher to contribute. Such studies "look underneath the findings in each study, searching for a commonality, a principle, to explain the similarities and differences in findings." Both synthesis studies and empirical research require a statement of the question, a plan for collecting evidence, a method of analysis and an interpretation of what the answers mean, particularly for practice.

Kearney, Lynn, and Tashlik, Phyllis. (1985). "Collaboration and Conflict: Teachers and Researchers Learning." Language Arts, 62(7): 765-69.

A seventh-grade teacher with one view of classroom management and student learning found herself teamed up for a year with a university researcher with a completely different pedagogical stance. Both teacher and researcher wrote in detail about perceptions of conflicts and then discussed these perceptions. The results were predictable: the researcher learned a good deal about practical classroom strategies.

Florio-Ruane, Susan, and Dohanich, JoAnn Burak. (1984). "Research Currents: communicating the Findings." Language Arts, 61(7): 724-30.

Following a collaborative project between classroom teachers and university researchers, the teachers were unimpressed with the researchers' report of the findings.

Reflection suggested that the team had missed the critical last stage of the enquiry process, deliberation of the meaning of the findings. Each group had different aims: the researchers aimed at generalization and explanation and the teachers were concerned with particularity and problem solving. Consequently, they found that researchers' findings needed to be translated into new formats and new language if it were to be useful to teachers. They therefore advocate extended deliberation between teachers and researchers regarding the significance of research findings.

IV. Theoretical Issues: Credibility, Accountability, and Empowerment.

Florio-Ruane, Susan. (1990). "The Written Literacy Forum: An Analysis of Teacher/Researcher Collaboration." Journal of Curriculum Studies, 22(4): 313-28.

Reports on a six-year Michigan project to apply research

on writing to problems of instruction. This phase of the project, The Written Literacy Forum, gathered ten teachers and researchers together over an extended period to probe the question "What does research on writing mean for teachers and teacher educators?" The paper offers a retrospecitve account of communication problems, setting goals, and communicating findings to a variety of audiences. The problems of ownership of collaborative research and credibility of teacher researchers are explored. Florio-Raune reports that school administrators and curriculum specialists did not want to take the teacher-researchers seriously and were often very rude at in-service presentations. She speculates that

> in the formal and informal hierarchies of school professionals, it might have seemed culturally inappropriate, indeed, for a teacher to be theorizing about curriculum or the process of instruction and for him/her to be doing that formally as a consultant to other, higher-status professionals. This seemed a troubling insight

for all concerned since it suggested that knowledge alone or even knowledge and a platform from which to share it might be insufficient to empower teachers in their own institutions.

She also notes the costs to teachers (their time and other expenses) and to researchers (this collaboration is very time-consuming and it does not appeal to large numbers of their peers, which, of course, has significant career implications).

Comber, Barbara. (1988). "The Continuing Conversation: Choices in Educational Research." Language Arts, 65(8): 776-86.

Comber argues that in the 1980's research emphasis has shifted from validating research according to how it is dome to validating research according to why it is done. She sees research as "emancipatory" in that its goal is to facilitate changes, not "just an attempt to understand and create theories about how things are." The researcher's role is "not an

objective interpreter of other people's realities." Rather, the researcher is a person who "can help participants better understand what is occurring by sharing explicit processes and actual data for negotiated interpretation." Research is evaluated by the participants who "interpret and reinterpret" meanings. Useful research "seeks to challenge everyday understandings, not to simply describe them accurately and accept them as the only possible reality."

Cook, Ann, and Mack, Herb. (1975). "The Teacher as Researcher." National Elementary School Principal, 55(4): 47-51.

Cook and Mack note that the accountability movement resulted in unreliable and invalid measures of teacher effectiveness being used. Their solution, illustrated by research they conducted with teachers, is to have teacher-researchers define the areas which need to be considered in evaluating effective classrooms.

Reading/Language in Secondary Schools Subcommittee of IRA. (1989). "Secondary Perspectives: Classroom Action Research: The Teacher as Researcher." Journal of Reading, 33(3): 216-18.

Offers a rationale for classroom research, examples of teacher-directed studies and advice on how to get started, including a five-step approach.

Bissex, Glenda. (1986). "On Becoming Teacher Experts: What's a Teacher-Researcher?" Language Arts, 63(5): 482-4.

Quoting Marie Clay, Bissex says that "an interesting change occurs in teachers who closely observe. They begin to question educational assumptions." Bissex outlines how teacher researchers are observers, questioners, learners, and more complete teachers. She also points out that a teacher researcher:

1. does not have to study hundreds of students, establish

control groups, and perform complex statistical analyses,

2. need not start out with a hypothesis to test, but with a wondering to pursue,
3. does not have to be antiseptically detached,
4. need not make her writing sound like a psychology textbook, and
5. is not a split personality with a poem in one hand and a microscope in the other.

Houser, Neil O. (1990). "Teacher-Researcher: The synthesis of Roles for Teacher Empowerment." Action in Teacher Education, 12(2): 55-59.

Rejecting both the traditional paradigm (teacher as minimally informed participant) and action research (teacher as collaborator), Houser opts instead for "praxis": through action theory is developed; this theory is modified through further action. Thus, he explains the praxis cycle:

> The teacher-researcher formulates new questions and tests old hunches while teaching. Data are collected during the course of on-going classroom practice. They are analyzed and interpreted and in turn generate new questions and hypotheses...

The successes of these projects are liberating for teachers who see themselves as experts with special insights into teaching and learning, not simply technicians who implement the strategies of others. Houser cites Porter's claim that collaborative research projects benefit both university faculty (who ask better research questions, use more valid methodology, and interpret findings more fully) and teachers (who appreciate more fully the strengths and limitations of their own practice and who become more receptive to new ideas).

V. Personal Growth

Bissex, Glenda L. (1988). "On Learning and Not Learning from Teaching." Language Arts, 65(8): 771-75.

Bissex uses a comparison between an assignment she gave early in her teaching career and responses from teacher-researchers in a university class she teaches to illustrate appropriate investigations and expectations for teacher researchers. In the early 1960's (well ahead of the current response to literature movement) she gave her students a writing assignment which fostered student response and received extraordinary pieces of student writing in return. However, she was unable to extend this assignment, to capitalize on it. She refers to this incident as an anomaly and feels that such anomalies are the beginnings of enquiry because they raise a question to be answered, challenge us to account for them.

Reflecting on her university students she notes that when sharing their work there was "an accumulating disappointment that they had not arrived at any monumental conclusions and a relief to find that others had the same

experience." She argues that the insights of teacher-researchers do not have to "prove" anything to change their teaching and that one of the most important lessons teacher-researchers learn is to trust their own powers of learning.

According to Bissex, the goal is to make us:

> reflective practitioners in our own classrooms, searching for insights that will help us understand and improve our practice. That does not exclude us from finding generalizable truths, although we may not know when we have found them.

Roderick, Jessie A. (1986). "Dialogue Writing: Context for Reflecting on Self as Teacher and Researcher." Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 1(4): 305-15.

Roderick demostrates insights that an individual teacher can arrive at by the systematic study of her own classroom strategy, in this case dialogue journals. A university

professor teaching elementary school methods, she approached her study of the dialogue journals from several perspectives: her analysis of the dialogue journals; post-hoc analysis of the experience independently by a fifty percent sample of the students and the professor; students' reflections on the experience; the professor's reflections on dialogue journals, and the professor's reflections on "self as teacher-researcher." She concludes that "Dialogue journal writing has provided a context that has enabled me to see myself through others and to analyze my plans and my attempts to implement them."

Brause, Rita S. and Mayher, John S. (1983). "Learning Through Teaching: The Classroom Teacher as Researcher." Language Arts, 60(6): 758-65.

These teacher-researchers analyzed a segment of a lesson in terms of a particular grade-two student's needs and his point of view. They discovered the student had procedural

concerns (e.g., How do I get a turn to talk when I know the answer or avoid a turn when I don't know the answer?), concerns about the accuracy of his response (How can I figure out the answer the teacher is looking for?), concerns with the form and content of responses (What's the minimum I can get by with?) and concerns with connections (How does this lesson connect to my life?). From this they were prompted to develop teaching strategies which would meet the student's needs (these strategies are, perhaps, the subject of another article).

Allan, Karen Kuelthau, and Albert, Maura. (1987). "Asking Questions Together: A Researcher-Teacher Collaboration." Language Arts, 64(7): 722-26.

Reports on the way a university researcher's classroom observation project evolved into a collaborative research project as the teacher and researcher shared and refined their questions. As the result of these questions, the classroom teacher developed strategies for dealing with frustrations with

an overloaded curriculum and the university researcher learned about how effective collaboration can come about. They recommend a series of three fora to prepare teachers and researchers to collaborate.

VI. University Courses

Mohr, M. M., and MacLean, L. M. S. (1987). Working together: A Guide for Teacher Researchers, Urbana, Illinois: NCTE.

To report that this book is an extended reflection on a practical graduate seminar on the teacher as researcher, is probably to prejudice the reader unduly. While it is a report of a carefully structured, highly-organized program which seems to require more time than most mortals have to spare, one does not need a research grant and released time to benefit from most of Mohr and MacLean's advice.

The time commitment is about what would be expected for a

graduate course: biweekly seminars of three hours each throughout the school year with assignments such as readings, journal entries, data collection, and research reports. Two central features of the program are research logs written by individual teachers, discussed in seminars, and responded to in writing by the group leaders; and support groups consisting of four or five teachers with common research interests and one group leader who are in close contact, frequently by telephone.

The authors discuss the steps of the research process (shaping research questions, collecting data, observing and reflecting, and analyzing and interpreting data), offering practical examples from the researchers' logs to show how each step was accomplished. They also discuss such issues as teacher-researcher role tension (the researcher wants to observe and record the student-discipline problem who is acting out, but the teacher in authority needs to intervene to stop it), the difficulty and necessity of retreating (it's harder to put the job aside when the teacher-researcher gets home), and the issues of validity and reliability in teacher research.

Mohr and MacLean also examine the problem of writing reports on the research:

> Rare is the teacher who is able, without the pressure or colleagues and deadlines, to write and publish for his or her own satisfaction. Teachers of grades K-12 find little encouragement for contemplation and writing during their school day. Therefore, we believe it is important for the teacher-researchers to produce a modest group publication by a determined deadline. (p. 52)

Asher, Carla. (1987). "Developing a Pedagogy for a Teacher-Researcher Program." English Education, 19(4): 211-19.

This paper describes a funded research project to develop a graduate-level course to prepare teacher-researchers. Asher outlines the seven principles which guided the program: 1. instructors modelled and shared their own research processes;

2. participants engaged in research from the onset and the seminars dealt with questions, ideas and concerns arising from this research; 3. research projects grow through the process of discovery and revision; 4. researchers need support at every phase of the research project, not simply criticism at the end (a good textbook provides some of this support); 5. research is a social, not a solitary, undertaking which requires "feedback, advice, reassurance, encouragement, and a sympathetic ear" from members of a research community; 6. teachers must own the research and the choices must be theirs, from selecting a topic, through chosing a design to reporting the findings; and 7. research is complex and teachers must "engage in all the struggles that any researchers engages in" if they are to learn to become researchers.

VII. Of Interest to Specialists

Myers, Miles. (1985). The Teacher-Researcher: How to Study Writing in the Classroom, Urbana, Illinois: Educational

Resources Information Clearinghouse and the National Council of Teachers of English.

Although he focusses on research in written composition, Myers claims that the book is intended for teachers who want an introduction to teacher research and offers a good deal of research advice which is of general interest. He argues that "Research by teachers should not be limited to case studies without number or [to] partnership roles for teachers, although both can be forms of teacher research," and consequently devotes the first chapter to a short course in research methods. Here advice ranges from defining the problem, through three methods of research design (rationalism, positivism, and contextualism), to examining limitations and reporting the results.

Chapters 2 to 5 each address one area of research in written composition (syntax, text, information processing, and social context) and Chapter 6 that which does not fit neatly

into the other chapters: errors, teaching practices, and student attitudes toward writing. In each chapter, Myers outlines the research foundations for the topic (which he names the 'feature'), presents a model "lesson" to teach the feature, and discusses methods of testing and evaluating experimental results. Each chapter closes with a list of suggested studies on the topic or feature.

For the teacher of written composition, Myers book is valuable on two levels. First, it presents a good discussion of a number of issues central to the teaching of written composition, providing a summary of the research background for each and offering outlines of lessons which teach the feature (and can be adapted directly and easily to the classroom) and methods to evaluate learning which has taken place. Second, it is a primer on classroom research, offering advice on all stages of the research project from selecting a topic through reporting the results. Two of the appendixes may also be of interest: B. Evaluation Designs for Practitioners (which

extends the discussion in Chapter 1) and Using Expressive Writing to Teach Biology, a report of a teacher research project.

Goswami, Dixie, and Stillman, Peter R. (Eds.) (1987). Reclaiming the Classroom: Teacher Research as an Agency for Change. Upper Montclair, N.J.: Boynton/Cook.

A collection of 19 articles divided into four sections: classroom inquiry, what is it?; inquiry as an agency for change; planning classroom research; and research close-ups: Bread Loaf's teacher-researchers. Each section is introduced by a short interview with a teacher-researcher. Over half of the articles are written by university researchers, most of whom are very well-known in the English education community (e.g., Janet Emig, James Britton, Garth Boomer, Nancy Martin, Mina Shaughnessy, Ken Macrorie, Shirley Brice Heath, Lee Odell, Ann E. Berthoff, Nancie Atwell). The remainder of the articles are reports by teacher-researchers of research they have carried

out in their classrooms as part of a graduate program at Bread Loaf School of English.

In their introduction Goswami and Stillman claim that

> This is meant to be an encouraging book, whose theme is caught in James Britton's observation, "What the teacher does not achieve in the classroom cannot be achieved by anybody else."

The book provides a wide variety of perspectives on teacher research, ranging from Boomer's claim that "The practice of 'action research' for many teachers and students is a reacquainting of themselves with certain parts of their brains; a repossession of the 'secrets' of research with which they were born" through Lee Odell's extensive advice on planning classroom research to Lucinda Ray's examination of the ratio and kinds of student and teacher talk during writing conferences she held with her secondary school students. Probably the most interesting (and least relevant) chapter in the book is Ken Macrorie's "Research as Odyssey," a report of

the interviews and classroom visits he conducted for his book Twenty Teachers, a project which took seven years. Macrorie notes, "I never did understand that re in research. I think it should be a search, a journey--maybe some fun in it as well as some pain, as in Odysseus' search...

Daiker, Donald. and Morenberg, Max. (1990). The Writing Teacher as Researcher: Essays in the Theory and Practice of Class-Based Research. Portsmouth, N.H.: Boynton/Cook.

Procedings of the Third Miami University Conference on the Teaching of Writing (1988), this collection of 25 essays examines the teacher-researcher through the eyes of university professors of English: all but four of the 28 authors currently teach college or university, although many have had K-12 teaching experience. Consequently, the essays tend to sit squarely in the theoretical, scholarly corner of the spectrum.

This collection opens with Berlin's analysis of the potential of teacher research to "change the consciousness of

teachers, making them aware of a democratic and empowering response to their vicitimization by social, political, and cultural forces" and includes the reflections of a number of notable composition researchers: Andrea Lunsford (three interpretive narratives on her experiences as a collaborative researcher); Edward P.J. Corbett (suggestions for researching personal history); George Hillocks, Jr. (reflections on a teacher preparation course); and Donald Murray (the act of writing generates ideas). Two of the projects reported were school based, funded, and carefully designed and analyzed: Alofs and Gray-McKennis studied the writing topics chosen by children in primary classrooms and Schwartz outlines an interdicsiplinary history-writing project taught collaboratively between two schools of diverse socio-economic backgrounds.

Other studies report a wide-variety of classroom projects ranging from Kathleen Geissler's examination of peer groups' growth in ability to respond to the writing of classmates, through James Reither's senior university

Shakespeare course which investigated the question "How and where did Shakespeare learn to do what he did?" (in which students and professor became collaborators in ferreting out sources), to Ruth Ray's case study of the perceptions of language and literacy of a non-native speaker of English. Articles by Art Young and by Jack Selzer explore research in technical writing courses.

Dekker, Mary M. (1991). "Books, Reading, and Response: A Teacher-Researcher Tells a Story." New Advocate, 4(1): 37-46.

Dekker describes her experience using reading logs with second and third grade children. Her report includes the stories children tell about books and the range of responses students made in their logs.

VIII. Tips from Related Works

Connelly, F. Michael, and Clandinin, D. Jean. (1988). Teachers as Curriculum Planners: Narratives of Experience, New York: Teachers College Press and Toronto: OISE Press.

Here and elsewhere, Connelly and Clandinin legitimize the use of teacher narratives as research. Teacher-researchers may find the five chapters of Part II (Understanding Yourself) particularly helpful in providing both a conceptual basis and the research tools for conducting personal research. Topics range from objectivity and subjectivity to personal practical knowledge through document analysis, storytelling, and relating image, rules, and principles. One delightful feature of the book is the "recommended readings" which close each chapter: instead of the customary bibliography, the authors present a "you might find interesting" discussion of pertinent sources.

Kemp, Max. (1987). Watching Children Read and Write: Observational Records for Children with Special Needs. Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann.

While not designed specifically for the teacher-researcher, Kemp's detailed observation model of the reading process and the comprehensive observation records for each stage of the model offer researchers a vehicle for the systematic study of children's reading. The observation records offer extensive suggestions both for naturalistic observations and assigned task performance. One of the book's six chapters offers suggestions for observing "emergent and expressive" writing, focussing on orthography (operationally defined as knowledge of the alphabet), handwriting, and spelling, and presenting two checklists for writing analysis.

VIII. Educational Resources Information Center

Bondy, Elizabeth, and Hatch, J. Amos. (1984). "The Researcher-Teacher Relationship: Observations and Implications from Naturalistic Studies in Classrooms." (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Educational Research Association, West Palm Beach, FL). ED 249278.

Describes teacher-researcher relationships based on examination of classroom studies and classifies them into four groups: antagonistic-defensive, reluctant-protective, accommodating-cooperative, and participating-collaborative. Suggests that teacher-researcher relationships should be made part of project designs for naturalistic studies and should be monitored throughout the project.

Cook, Ann, and Mack, Herb. (1975). "The Word and the Thing: Ways of Seeing the Teacher. A Statement Regarding Teacher Education, Teacher Accountability, Evaluation, and The Teacher as Researcher. ED 127274.

Explores the teacher-as-researcher and other educational movements in terms of several problems: the misuse of language; the inexpensive quick solution, inadequate teacher preparation and support, emphasis on one-dimensional evaluation, and lack of attention to process skills.

Darche-Park, Cynthia, and Lujan, Jamie. (1981). "Collaborative Staff Development for Teachers of Bilingual Students with the Teacher as Researcher." ED 212 148.

Reports a one-year university/school district project to help teachers of limited-English-speaking students to solve pedagogical problems. An outline of teacher training procedures is provided.

Elliot, Norbert. (1986). "Beginning a Teacher-Researcher Program: The First Steps." ED 280075.

Reports on a project which compared the writing growth of students who were taught by teacher-researchers with those taught by traditional teachers. In five of the six grades tested, the students taught by the teacher-researchers showed greater improvement.

Holmes, John. (1986). "Teacher as Researcher." Working Paper

No. 17.) ED 278215.

Following a discussion of general research principles, the paper summarizes a number of studies carried out by Brazilian teachers of English as a Second Language and suggests research projects which are "potentially motivating and manageable."

Klinghammer, Sarah J. (1986). "Teacher as Researcher." (Paper presented at the TRI-TESOL Conference, Bellevue, WA) ED 286366.

Outlines several types of research that might be undertaken by ESL teachers and suggests appropriate research methods. Klinghammer believes that the single-subject design is most appropriate for classroom research.

McIntosh, Margaret E. (1984). "The Efficacy of Teacher as Researcher: A Testimonial." ED 278015.

Discusses several benefits of teacher as researcher: their colleagues find it much easier to identify with research which has been conducted down the hall; teachers become something other than consumers of educational dicta as they develop their own theories and test the hypotheses that support their theories.

Saphier, Jonathon D. (1980). "Working with the Teacher-as-Researcher: A Vehicle for Conduct of Basis Research and Staff Development." ED 186 430.

Report of a two-year project in which thirty elementary school teacher-researchers explored their own teaching.

Sitter, Janet P. (1984). "A Challenge for the 21st Century: Teacher Educator as Researcher." (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, San Antonio, EX, 1984). ED 241487.

Believes that the imbalance between theoretical and practical research can be corrected by teacher educators who do practical research as part of their university assignments because of the opportunity to study teaching as it naturally occurs. Sitter reports a study conducted by a student teaching supervisor which demonstrates how such research can be conducted.

SooHoo, Suzanne. (1989). "Teacher Researcher: Emerging Change Agent." (Paper presented to the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, Ca., March 1989). ED 307255.

Describes a joint project between an elementary school and a graduate school to explore alternatives to standardized test scores. Teachers kept daily observation journals and attended monthly meetings.

Tierney, Robert J. (1985). "The Metcalf Project: A Teacher-

Researcher Collaboration in Developing Reading and Writing Instructional Problem-Solving." (Urbana, Illinois: Centre for the Study of Reading, Reading Education Report No. 56). ED 252818.

Reports on a three-year project at a laboratory school in which teachers explored the relationships between reading comprehension and written composition. During the first two years the teachers explored ideas and carried out projects; during the third year the teachers became change agents, drawing other teachers into the research group.

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Practice. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.

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Stenhouse, L. (1978). "Case Study and Case Records: Towards a Contemporary History of Education." British Educational Research Journal, 4(2): 29-39.